# Nuclear Import and Export Signals Enable Rapid Nucleocytoplasmic Shuttling of the Atypical Protein Kinase C $\lambda^*$

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The atypical protein kinase C (PKC) isoenzymes, No. and CPKC, play important roles in cellular signaling pathways regulating proliferation, differentiation, and cell survival. By using green fluorescent protein (GFP) fusion proteins, we found that wild-type λPKC localized predominantly to the cytoplasm, whereas both a kinasedefective mutant and an activation loop mutant accumulated in the nucleus. We have mapped a functional nuclear localization signal (NLS) to the N-terminal part of the zinc finger domain of APKC. Leptomycin B treatment induced rapid nuclear accumulation of GFP-λ as well as endogenous APKC suggesting the existence of a CRM1-dependent nuclear export signal (NES). Consequently, we identified a functional leucine-rich NES in the linker region between the zinc finger and the catalytic domain of APKC. The presence of both the NLS and NES enables a continuous shuttling of λPKC between the cytoplasm and nucleus. Our results suggest that the exposure of the NLS in both λ- and ζPKC is regulated by intramolecular interactions between the N-terminal part, including the pseudosubstrate sequence, and the catalytic domain. Thus, either deletion of the N-terminal region, including the pseudosubstrate sequence, or a point mutation in this sequence leads to nuclear accumulation of APKC. The ability of the two atypical PKC isoforms to enter the nucleus in HeLa cells upon leptomycin B treatment differs substantially. Although APKC is able to enter the nucleus very rapidly, ¿PKC is much less efficiently imported into the nucleus. This difference can be explained by the different relative strengths of the NLS and NES in APKC compared with CPKC.

The protein kinase C (PKC) family of lipid-dependent senine/threonine kinases plays pivotal roles in a wide variety of cellular processes (reviewed in Refs. 1–3). Based on sequence homology, domain organization, and biochemical properties, 10 different isoforms are grouped into three classes denoted clas-

tant roles for aPKCs in processes as diverse as proliferation (15, 16), differentiation (17-19), cell polarity (reviewed in Ref. 20), insulin-mediated up-regulation of general protein synthesis (21), glucose transport (22-24), up-regulation of  $\alpha_2$  integrin gene expression (25), and cell survival (26-30). Interestingly, in addition to cytoplasmic proteins nuclear proteins also have been reported to act as substrates for aPKCs (31-33). The RNA-binding protein nucleolin is phosphorylated by ¿PKC in response to nerve growth factor (NGF) treatment of PC12 cells (33). Heterogeneous ribonucleoprotein-A1, another RNA-binding protein involved in splicing and mRNA transport. is also a substrate of LPKC (31). Both nucleolin and heterogeneous ribonucleoprotein-A1 shuttle between the cytoplasm and the nucleus. The ubiquitously expressed transcription factor Sp1 is able to form a complex with \( \geq PKC \). In fact, \( \geq PKC \) phosphorylates Sp1 within the DNA-binding domain and stimulates Sp1-mediated transactivation of the vascular permeability factor/vascular endothelial growth factor promoter (32). Nuclear localization of both ζ- and λPKC has been demonstrated. NGF stimulation of PC12 cells led to rapid and transient translocation of JPKC from the cytoplasm to the nucleus (33-35). In

resting HepG2 cells ectopically expressed λPKC was found both

in the cytoplasm and in the nucleus (8). Upon stimulation with either platelet-derived growth factor or epidermal growth factor, the nuclear pool of λPKC translocated in a wortmannin-

sensitive manner to the cytoplasm and to more compact struc-

tures within the nucleus.

sical, novel, and atypical PKCs. ¿PKC and NaPKC constitute

the atypical PKCs (aPKCs). In contrast to the classical and

novel PKCs that contain two repeated diacylglycerol (DAG)-

binding zinc finger domains within their regulatory domains.

the aPKCs have only a single zinc finger domain that is unable

to interact with DAG or phorbol esters (4, 5). Consequently,

they do not require DAG for their activation. Atypical PKCs

have instead been shown to be regulated in vitro and in vivo by

other lipid products such as ceramide (6, 7) and phosphatidy-

linositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate, a product of phosphatidylinositol

3-kinase (PI 3-kinase) (8-10). Consistently, aPKCs are

strongly implicated as downstream effectors of PI 3-kinase (8,

10-14). Recently, evidence has accumulated that imply impor-

During the last few years, short leucinerich nuclear export signals (NESs) have been identified with a variety of proteins like human immunodeficiency virus-1 Rev (41), PKI (42), mitogen-activated protein kinase/extracellular signal-regulated kinase kinase (43), mitogen-activated protein kinase-activated protein kinase-2 (MAPKAP kinase 2) (44), ov-

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The abbreviations used are PKC, protein kinase C, aPKC, atypical protein kinase (c, iGFP, green fluorescent protein; LMB, leptomycin B, NES, nuclear export signal; NLS, nuclear localization signal; PCR, polymerase chini reaction; DAG, dianglylgverol; P3 chinase, phosphati-dylinositol 3-kinase, NGC, nerve growth factor; DAT, 2-kinase local protein kinase 2, mitagen-activated protein kinase-2.

Table I

Sequences of oligonucleotides used as PCR primers for plasmid constructions and site-directed mutagenesis

Sequences of oligonucleotides used as PCR primers for plasmid constructions and site-directed mutagenesis				
Name Sequence				
λPKCR.5pr	5'-AGTGAGAATTCGCCGACCCAGAGGGACAGC-3'			
λPKC.3nt	5'-GAATTTCTAGAGGGGCAACATAAAATGCTAA-3'			
λPKCK282W	5'-CGCATTTATGCAATGTGGGTTGTGAAGAAAGAGC-3'			
λPKCT411A	5'-GGAGACACAACCAGCGCTTTCTGCGGCACTCCC-3'			
λPKCT411E	5'-GGAGACACCAGCGAGTTCTGCGGCACTCCC-3'			
APKCR150/151E	5'-GCCAAACGTTTCAATGAGGAGGCCCACTGTGCCATC-3'			
λPKCF253A/L255A	5'-GGTCTGCAGGATGCCGATGCGAGTTATAGG-3'			
APKCA129E	5'-TTACCGGAGAGGGGAACGCCGGTGGAGAAAGC-3'			
ζPKCF252A/L254A	5'-GGGCTGCAAGACGCTGACGCCATCAGAGTCA-3'			
ζPKCK281W	5'-AGATTTACGCCATGTGGGTGGTAAAGAAGGAGC-3'			
λPKC256.3nt	5'-CCTGCTAGCCGAAGCAAATCGAAATCCT-3'			
λPKCcat.5pr	5'-GCAGAATTCCGATTTGCTTCGAGTTATA-3'			
λPKC194.5pr	5'-TGAGTGGAATTCGCACTCTTTGCCACCGGAAC-3'			
λPKC141.5pr	5'-TGTGCGAATTCCCACACTTTTCAAGCCAAACGT-3'			
λPKC194.3nt	5'-CAAAGGATCCCGCCCACACTCAATTGTGACCA-3'			
ζPKC.5pr	5'-GGAGAATTCCATGCCCAGCAGGA-3'			
ζPKC255.3nt	5'-TGACGGATCCGAGGTCAAAGTCTTGCA-3'			
αPKC37.5pr	5'-AGGTGAATTCCCACAAATTCATCGCC-3'			
αPKC88.3nt	5'-CCCGGATCCGCACCCGGACAAGAGAAC-3'			
αPKC155.3nt	5'-CTGGGATCCCCATTCCGCAGAGGCTAG-3'			
m¢PKC132.5pr	5'-AGCGAATTCCCACCTCTTCCAAGCCAA-8'			
m¢PKC182.3nt	5'-GAATGGATCCGCCTCCTGCAGGTCAG-3'			
ζPKC.3nt	5'-ATGTCTAGACACGGACTCCTCAGCAGA-3'			
čcat.5pr	5'-ACTTGAATTCCATCAGAGTCATCGGG-3'			
ζ130.5pr	5'-GAGCGAATTCCCACCTCTTCCAAGCCA-3'			
λPKC163.5pr	5'-GAATGAATTCCCTCGGACGACAAGGATACAA-3'			
ζPKC182.3nt	5'-GAATCGGATCCCCTCCTGCAGGTCAGCGGGA-3'			

clin B (45), and phospholipase C-81 (46). NES-dependent nuclear export is inhibited by leptomycin B that interferes with the binding of NES to CRM1/exportin 1 (47-51).

Here we have studied the subcellular localization of  $\lambda$ - and ZPKC in living cells using green fluorescent protein (GFP) fusion proteins. We find that a kinase-defective mutant of APKC accumulates in the cell nucleus, whereas the wild-type kinase is mainly cytosolic. Inhibition of CRM1-dependent nuclear export using leptomycin B leads to rapid nuclear accumulation of both GFP-λ and endogenous λPKC. By deletion studies and site-directed mutagenesis, we identified both a functional NLS and an NES in λPKC. These signals endow APKC with the ability to shuttle continuously between the cytoplasm and the nucleus. Our results are compatible with the notion that the exposure of the NLS in both λPKC and ζPKC may be regulated by intramolecular interactions between the N-terminal region and the catalytic domain of the kinases. Also, we find that ¿PKC is much less efficiently imported into the nucleus than APKC in HeLa cells upon blockade of nuclear export by leptomycin B treatment. This is most likely due to differences in the relative strengths of the NES and NLS in the two atypical PKCs.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell Cultures—HeLa cells (ATCC CCL2) were grown in Engle's minmum essential medium supplemented with 10% fetal call serum, nonsessential amino acids, 2 mM reghttamino, penicillin (100 units/ml), and essential amino acids, 2 mM reghttamino, penicillin (100 units/ml), and estreptomych (100 ag/ml) (Life Technologies, Inc. HEX282 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Engle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal call serum, and the antibitois described above, Subconfluent HeLa and HEX232 cells were transfected using the calcium-phosphates of perceptial to method. For the nuclear export experiments, leptomycin B, kindly provided by Dr. M Yoshida, Tokyo, was added to the medium to a final concertation of 2 m/din.

Plasmid Constructions and Site-directed Mutagenesis—The murine PMC cDNA was amplified from a mouse brain cDNA library (Marathon Ready, CLONTECID) by PCR using EcTaq polymerase (Takara-Biomedicals). The PCR product was made blunt and subcloned into the Smal site of pUC18. Inspection of the cDNA sequences show that both the murine APCR and the human PMC cDNAs actually contain an in 520. The Xenogue APKC solo contains this start coden right nation acids ustream of the second APC coden. Since this is the first in frame ATC and the amino acid sequences of this N-terminal extension also are conserved between the species, we suggest that this most 5' ATG is the start codon of NAPKC. Consequently, the numbering system used in this paper is based on this. To generate pHA-λ, pUC18-λPKC was digested with EcoRI and XbaI, and the fragment containing the coding region for full-length APKC (amino acids 1-595 in our numbering system) was inserted into the corresponding sites of pcDNA3-HA, pcDNA3-HA was a kind gift from Dr. Jorge Moscat and contains an influenza hemagglutinin (HA) epitope tag inserted into the HindIII-EcoRI sites of pcDNA3 (Invitrogen), pGFP-λ was made from pHA-λ by inserting the EcoRI-XbaI (blunted) fragment encoding λPKC into the EcoRI-SmaI sites of pEGFP-C1 vector (CLONTECH). pGFP-\(\xi\) was made from pHA-\(\xi\) (kindly provided by dr. Jorge Moscat) by inserting an EcoRI-XbaI (blunted) fragment encoding rat ¿PKC into the EcoRI-SmaI sites of pEGFP-C1. The expressions plasmids for HA-λK282W, GFP-λK282W, GFPλT411A, GFP-λT411E, GFP-λK282W-R150E/R151E, GFP-λ(141-162)R150E/R151E, GFP-\(\alpha\)F253A/L255A, GFP-\(\alpha\)A129E, GFP-\(\alpha\)K281W, and GFP-ZF252A/L254A were made by site-directed mutagenesis according to the instruction manual for the Quick-Change Site-directed Mutagenesis Kit (Stratagene) using the λPKCK282W, λPKCT411A. APKCT411E, APKCR150E/R151E, APKCF253A/L255A, APKCA129E, ζPKCK281W, and ζPKCF252A/L254A mutagenesis primers (Table I). The GFP-λ and GFP-ζ deletion mutants were made using the following strategy. Different parts of the  $\lambda$ - or  $\mathcal{L}PKC$  cDNAs were amplified by PCR using primers that contained recognition sequences for specific restriction enzymes. The PCR products were purified and digested with restriction enzymes and inserted into the corresponding sites of pEGFP-C1. All constructs were verified by sequencing. All GFP-N-Z constructs are named according to the included parts of either APKC or ¿PKC with the amino acid positions shown in parentheses. To study the localization of the regulatory domain of APKC, two different constructs were made encoding fusion proteins where GFP was either fused to the N-terminal end or the C-terminal end. pUC18-regλ was generated by PCR using pUC18-APKC as template and the APKCR.5pr and A256.3nt primers (Table I). The PCR product was made blunt and subcloned into the SmaI site of pUC18, pUC18-rega was digested with NheI (blunted) and EcoRI, and the reg $\lambda$  fragment was inserted into the ApaI (blunted) and EcoRI sites of pEGFP-N1 (CLONTECH). To make pGFP-A(1-256). pregλ-GFP was cut with EcoRI and Bam HI, and the regλ fragment was cloned into the corresponding sites of pEGFP-C1. pGFP-λ(256-595) was made from a PCR product generated by using pUC18-λPKC as template and the primers APKCcat.5pr and APKC.3pt. The PCR product was cut with XbaI (blunted) and EcoRI and inserted into SmaI-EcoRI digested pEGFP-C1, pGFP-λ(1-139) was constructed by inserting an EcoRI-MscI fragment from pGFP-λ(1-256) into the EcoRI-SmaI sites of pEGFP-C1. pGFP-\(\alpha(141-595)\) was made by PCR using the

λPKC141.5pr and the λPKC.3nt primers. The product was cut with XbaI (blunted) and EcoRI and cloned into the EcoRI-SmaI sites of pEGFP-C1. pGFP-λ(194-256) was constructed from a PCR product amplified using the \$194.5pr and \$256.3pt primers, digested with EcoRI and NheI (blunted), and inserted into the EcoRI-SmaI sites of pEGFP-C1. To make pGFP-λ(141-194), the λ141.5pr and λ194.3nt primers were used, and the PCR product was cut with EcoRI and BamHI and inserted into the corresponding sites of pEGFP-C1. Exactly the same strategy was used to make pGFP-\(\lambda(1-194)\) and pGFP-\(\lambda(163-194) using the primers λPKCR.5pr and λPKC194.3nt for pGFP-λ(1-194) and λPKC163.5pr and λPKC194.3nt for pGFP-λ(163-194) (Table pGFP-λ(141-163) was made from pGFP-λ(141-194) by inserting an EcoRI-Eco0109I (blunted) fragment into EcoRI-SmaI-digested pEGFP-C1. To make pGFP-Z(132-182) a cDNA fragment encoding the zinc finger domain of LPKC was amplified from mouse brain cDNA library using the mgPKC132.5pr and mgPKC182.3nt primers (Table I). The PCR product was cut with BamHI and EcoRI before being inserted into the corresponding sites of pEGFP-C1. To make pGFP-α(37-88) and pGFP- $\alpha(37-155)$ , containing one or both of the zinc finger domains from murine αPKC fused to GFP, the same strategy as for construction of pGFP-ζ(132-182) was used except that the αPKC37.5pr and αPKC88.3nt primers were used for pGFP-α(37-88) and the αPKC37.5pr and αPKC155.3nt primers were used for pGFP-α(37-155). pGFP-z(255-592) and pGFP-z(130-592) were made from PCR products amplified using pHA-¿PKC as template and the ¿cat.5pr and ¿PKC.3nt primers for pGFP-Z(254-592) and primers Z130.5pr and ZPKC.3nt for pGFP-7(130-592). The PCR products were blunted, cut with EcoRI, and cloned into the EcoRI-SmaI sites of pEGFP-C1. pGFP-\(\circ\)(1-255) was made from a PCR product generated using the ¿PKC.5pr and ¿PKC255,3nt primers that was cut with EcoRI and BamHI and inserted into the corresponding sites within pEGFP-C1. pGFP-2(1-182) and pGFP-z(130-255) were generated following exactly the same strategy as for pGFP-7(1-255) using the 7PKC5 pr and 7PKC182.3pt primers for pGFP2(1-182) and the primers \( \begin{aligned} \text{PKC130.5pr} \) and \( \begin{aligned} \begin{aligned} \text{PKC255.3nt} \] for pGFP-Z(130-255).

Subcellular Localization Analyses and Immunocytochemistry-For the subcellular localization studies of the different GFP fusion proteins, HeLa cells were seeded in 6-well dishes at a density of  $5 \times 10^4$  cells per well 24 h before transfection. The cells were transfected with 1 µg of expression vectors for the different GFP fusions. The subcellular localizations of the GFP fusion proteins in living cells were visualized by fluorescence microscopy using a Leitz DMIRB invert microscope equipped for fluorescence and with a Leica DC100 digital camera. For DAPI staining the cells were fixed and permeabilized in 4% paraformaldehyde, 0.01% Triton X-100 for 10 min at 4 °C, and the DNA was stained with 1 µg/ml DAPI (Sigma) for 5 min at room temperature. HA-λ and HA-λK282W were detected using a monoclonal anti-HA antibody (12CA5, Roche Molecular Biochemicals). Subconfluent HEK293 cells in 24-well culture dishes were cotransfected with 0.4 µg of the different GFP-N-Z-expressing plasmids and 0.4 µg of vectors expressing either HA-λ or HA-λK282W. Twenty four h later the cells were fixed by adding freshly made paraformaldehyde directly to medium to a final concentration of 4%. The cells were permeabilized for 10 min on ice using methanol pre-chilled at -20 °C. The aldehyde groups were quenched by incubating the cells with 10 mm glycine, pH 8.5, for 5 min at room temperature. The fixed cells were incubated with 3% preimmune goat serum in phosphate-buffered saline for 1 h at room temperature before incubation with the anti-HA antibody diluted 1:500 in blocking solution for 1 h at room temperature or overnight at 4 °C. The immunostaining was developed using an Alexa 594-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG secondary antibody (Molecular Probes) diluted 1:500 in blocking solution. Endogenous APKC in HeLa cells was detected by staining with an anti-APKC antibody (clone 41, Transduction Laboratories) at a dilution of 1:200.

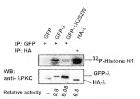
Proporation of Cytosulic Nuclear Extracts and Immune Complex Kimass Assays—The activities of the different CFP  $\nu$ 4.7 mutants and HA- $V_1$  were measured in total cellular extracts by immune complex kinase assays using histone H1 as substrates. Subsonthment cultures of HeLa cells in 100-mm diameter Petri dishes were transfected with 10  $\mu$ 5 gr of vectors expressing the different CFP  $\nu$ 4.7 mutants or HA- $\nu$ 5. The cells were harvested by trypsinization 24 h post-transfection, and nuclear extracts were prepared as described 6(3). All buffers contained 1 table from the central transfer of the control of the contro tagged proteins were immunoprecipitated from total cell extracts as follows. Total cellular extracts from 100-mm culture dishes were preincubated with unsaturated 50% gel-slurry solution of protein A-Sepharose CL-4B beads (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech) for 20 min at 4 °C and then incubated for 2 h at 4 °C with either 1  $\mu g$  of anti-HA antibody (12CA5, Roche Molecular Biochemicals) or 2 μg of polyclonal anti-GFP antibody (Molecular Probes) in a total volume of 400 µl in HA lysis buffer (50 mm Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 150 mm NaCl, 2 mm EDTA, 1 mm EGTA, 1% Triton X-100). Fifteen µl of bovine serum albumin-saturated 50% gel-slurry was added to the samples before continuing the incubation for 1 h at 4 °C. The samples were washed five times in HA lysis buffer and once in Wi-kinase buffer (35 mm Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mm MgCl., 0.5 mm EGTA, 0.1 mm CaCl.). The complexes were resuspended in 15 μl of kinase buffer containing 3 μg of histone H1 (Calbiochem), 60 μM ATP, and 2 μCi of [γ-32P]ATP and incubated at 30 °C for 20 min. The kinase reactions were terminated by adding 3.8  $\mu$ l of 5× SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis load buffer, and the samples were boiled immediately for 5 min. The samples were run on a 10% polyacrylamide gel and electrotransferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (Hybond ECL, Amersham Pharmacia Biotech). The phosphorylated proteins were detected and quantitated using a PhosphorImager (Molecular Dynamics). The amount of immunoprecipitated GFP-λ/-ζ and HA-λ was determined by probing the membrane with the specific anti-APKC antibody or an anti-ZPKC antibody (Upstate Biotechnology) that recognizes both ZPKC and APKC. The chemiluminescence signals from the blots were detected using a LumiImager F1 (Roche Molecular Biochemicals) and quantitated as Boehringer light units using the LumiAnalyst 3.0 software. The relative activities of GFP-λ and HA-λ were determined as PhosphorImager units of phosphorylated substrate divided on the Boehringer light units representing the amount of kinase used.

Western Blot Analyses-HeLa cells were seeded at 4 × 105 per 100-mm dish the day before transfection. The cells were transfected with 10 μg of the different GFP-N-ζ expression vectors. Twenty four h post-transfection the cells were scraped directly in 100  $\mu$ l of 2× SDSpolyacrylamide gel electrophoresis gel load buffer, boiled for 5 min, and sonicated briefly. The samples were run on 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels and blotted onto Hybond nitrocellulose membranes. The membranes were blocked in 5% nonfat dry milk in TBST (10 mm Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 150 mm NaCl, 0.1% Tween 20) for 1 h at room temperature and then incubated with the primary antibody diluted in TBST for 1 h at room temperature or overnight at 4 °C. The following primary antibodies were used: anti-GFP, polyclonal (diluted 1:2000, CLONTECH), antiλPKC (0.1 μg/ml, clone 41, Transduction Laboratories), anti-ζPKC (0.5 μg/ml, Upstate Biotechnology, Inc.), and anti-HA (1 μg/ml, 12CA5, Roche Molecular Biochemicals). The membranes were washed 6 times in TBST and incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated antirabbit IgG or anti-mouse IgG secondary antibodies (0.2 µg/ml, Transduction Laboratories) for 1 h at room temperature. The washing step described above was repeated, and the membranes were developed using the ECL system following the instructions of the manufacturer (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech).

### RESILTS

Different Subcellular Localization of Wild-type \( \lambda PKC \) and Two Mutants with Single Mutations in the Catalytic Domain-Vectors for expression of murine λPKC with either an HA epitope tag or enhanced green fluorescent protein (GFP) fused to its N terminus were constructed. The expressed proteins were denoted HA-λ and GFP-λ, respectively. A point mutation was introduced into the ATP-binding site to generate a kinasedefective mutant of APKC, AK282W. To test if the relatively large GFP moiety affected the kinase activity of APKC, immune complex kinase assays were performed to compare the ability of HA-λ and GFP-λ to phosphorylate histone H1. As shown in Fig. HA-λ and GFP-λ immunoprecipitated from transiently transfected HeLa cells showed similar activities with GFP-λ even being a bit more active than HA-λ. The GFP fusion to the ATP-binding site mutant (GFP-λK282W) showed no activity as expected. This strongly suggests that the fusion of GFP to the N-terminal of APKC has no significant effect on kinase activity.

To determine the subcellular localization of λPKC in living cells, HEK293 and HeLa cells transiently transfected with vectors expressing either GFP-λ, GFP-λK282W, or GFP alone were analyzed by fluorescence microscopy. GFP-λ was mainly



Fo. 1. The kinase activity of APIKC is not affected by the GPP fusion partner. Subconducent Hela cells in 100-mm dishes were transferded with 10 µg of either pEGIP-C1 weter or expression constructs for CFPA, GFPAK2SW, or HAA. Twenty four had for transferction, whole cell extracts were made by mixing nuclear and cytoselic GFPAKSSW, or HAA were immonspericipated HQP using an anti-GFP antibody or an anti-HA antibody, and their kinase activities were determined by immunobletting (WB) with an antibody against APKC. The relative activities represent the amount of substarte phosphorylated and quantitated using a "Buspherlinager divided on the amount of all continuous continuous designs and the continuous designs and the continuous designs are supported and quantitated using a "Buspherlinager divided on the amount of Lumillanger."

localized to the cytoplasm in both cell lines although a fraction of the protein was detected in the nucleus (Fig. 2A). Surprisingly, the GFP-AK282W mutant was localized to the cell nucleus in both cell types. The GFP protein alone was distributed diffusely throughout both the cytoplasm and the nucleus. To see if HA-tagged \(\lambda\) or \(\lambda K282W\) displayed the same subcellular localization as their GFP counterparts, HEK293 cells were cotransfected with GFP-A and HA-AK282W or GFP-AK282W and HA-λ. The subcellular localization of HA-λ and HA-AK282W was determined in fixed cells by immunocytochemistry using an anti-HA monoclonal antibody. As shown in Fig. 2B, HA-λ was localized predominantly to the cytoplasm, whereas HA-AK282W accumulated in the nucleus. The nuclear localization of GFP-AK282W was also verified by confocal laser microscopy of transiently transfected NIH 3T3 cells (data not shown). Western blot analyses of whole cell extracts and immunostaining with a monoclonal antibody recognizing specifically the C-terminal catalytic domain of APKC showed that the nuclear staining was due to full-length protein and not caused by a proteolytic fragment containing GFP and only part of λPKC (data not shown).

Phosphorylation of a conserved threonine residue within the activation loop of all PKCs is crucial for subsequent autophosphorylation and activation of the enzyme (54). Substitution of this threonine in ¿PKC (Thr-410) with an acidic amino acid created a constitutively activated kinase, whereas replacing it with alanine severely reduced the catalytic activity (13, 55). To test if mutation of the corresponding Thr-411 site in APKC affected the subcellular localization of the kinase, GFP fusion proteins containing alanine (GFP-λT411A) or glutamate (GFPλT411E) substitutions at this site were expressed in HeLa cells. The catalytic activity of the T411A mutant was significantly reduced compared with wild-type APKC and the T411E mutant (Fig. 2C). Interestingly, similar to the kinase-defective ATP-binding site mutant, GFP-\(\lambda\)T411A was mainly nuclear in living HeLa cells, whereas GFP-AT411E displayed a predominantly cytosolic localization just as the wild-type APKC (Fig. 2D). Taken together, these results indicate that the ATP-binding site and the T411A mutations may somehow affect the overall conformation of the protein so that signals governing subcellular localization are exposed differently in these mutants compared with the wild-type enzyme. However, as demonstrated below the observed nuclear accumulation is not correlated to the activity status of the kinase.

The Zinc Finger Domain of \( \text{\chiPKC Contains a Nuclear Local-} \) ization Signal-Proteins larger than about 40-60 kDa cannot enter into the nucleus through the nuclear pore complex by passive diffusion (38, 39). Since both HA-AK282W (67 kDa) and GFP-λK282W (92 kDa) are too large to diffuse into the nucleus. it seemed logical to assume that APKC could contain a functional nuclear localization signal (NLS) or be transported via interaction with a partner protein containing an NLS. Thus, to map the region(s) of λPKC required for nuclear localization. deletion mutants were made in the context of GFP fusion proteins (Fig. 3A). Plasmids expressing the different deletions were transfected into HeLa cells, and the expression of GFP fusion proteins with correct sizes was verified by Western blot analyses using an anti-GFP antibody (Fig. 3B). Fluorescence microscopy of living cells revealed that GFP-λ(256-595) corresponding to the catalytic domain of APKC was mainly localized diffusely in the cytoplasm (Fig. 3C). Due to a low level of expression of this construct in HeLa cells, GFP-λ(256-595) was also transiently expressed in HEK293 cells. Compared with the distribution in HeLa cells, GFP-λ(256-595) was even more excluded from the nucleus in HEK293 cells. In contrast, a fusion protein containing the regulatory domain, GFP-λ(1-256) was primarily localized to the cell nucleus. We next analyzed which part of the regulatory domain that was responsible for the observed nuclear accumulation (Fig. 3C). GFP-λ(1-139), containing the first 139 amino acids of APKC including the pseudosubstrate sequence, was diffusely localized throughout the cell. The molecular mass of this construct is ~42 kDa so the protein will probably enter the nucleus by passive diffusion (38, 39). In contrast, a GFP fusion protein corresponding to the zinc finger domain of λPKC, GFP-λ(141-194), was exclusively localized to the nucleus. This fusion protein further accumulated in structures corresponding to the nucleoli. These observations clearly suggest that the zinc finger domain contains a functional NLS. Surprisingly, GFP-\(\lambda\)(194-256), containing the variable linker region between the zinc finger domain and the ATP-binding site, was excluded from the nucleus. According to the theoretical size of this fusion protein (about 35 kDa) one would expect that it could enter the nucleus by diffusion. Therefore, this fusion protein may be sequestered in the cytoplasm by an anchoring protein, or it may be actively exported from the nucleus.

The sequence identities between the zinc finger domain of APKC and those of classical and novel PKCs vary from 35 to 48%, whereas there is 74% identity between the zinc finger domains of λPKC and ζPKC (Fig. 4A). We therefore asked whether the zinc finger domain of  $\zeta$ PKC, like that of  $\lambda$ PKC, was able to direct a GFP fusion protein to the nucleus. To this end, HeLa cells were transfected with a construct expressing a GFP fusion protein containing the complete zinc finger domain of murine ¿PKC, GFP-¿(130-182). Indistinguishable from the results with the corresponding APKC construct, this fusion protein was exclusively nuclear demonstrating that the zinc finger domain of LPKC also contains an NLS (Fig. 4C). However, GFP fusion proteins containing either the first or both zinc finger domains of the classical isoform αPKC, GFP-α(37-88), and GFP- $\alpha(37-155)$  did not accumulate in the cell nuclei but rather in punctate structures in the cytoplasm (Fig. 4C). Thus, the ability to translocate to the nucleus is not a conserved feature of PKC zinc finger domains.

The zinc finger domain of the aPKCs does not contain classical monopartite or bipartite NLSs. However, APKC, LPKC, and PKC3 from Caenorhabditis elegans contain a cluster of

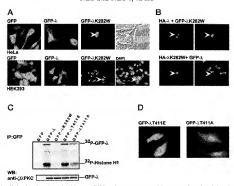
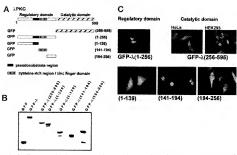


Fig. 2. Different subcellular localization of wild-type APKC and two mutants with no or reduced activity. A, abbcellular distribution of GFPA and kinse-defective GFPAAS282W in Heal and HEX293 cells. Subconfluent cultures of HeLa (apper panel) or HEX293 (lower panel) cells seeded in 6-well dishes were transfected with 1 µg of vectors expressing either GFP alone, GFP-A, or GFP-AK292W were stained with DAPI constantion in living cells was visualized by fluorescence microscopy. HEX293 cells expressing GFP-AK292W were stained with DAPI causalize the nuclei. The nuclei of HeLa and HEX293 cells expressing GFP-AK292W were stained with DAPI called the constantion of HA-tagged red) and GFP-AK292W are indicated by arrows. B, similar subcellular distribution of HA-tagged red) and GFP-AK292W and GFP-AK292W are indicated by arrows. B, similar subcellular distribution of HA-tagged red) and constant of the discovery of the AK292W and GFP-AK292W are indicated by arrows in distribution of HA-tagged red) and the GFP-AK292W and G

four basic amino acids in the N-terminal part of the zinc finger (KRF/LNRR in Fig. 4A). This motif is not found in the classical and novel PKCs as exemplified by the second zinc finger of δPKC and both zinc fingers of αPKC in Fig. 4A. In a threedimensional structure model of the zinc finger domain of APKC, constructed based on the solved structure of the corresponding zinc finger of oPKC, these basic residues are exposed on the surface. Particularly, Arg-150 and Arg-151 are ideally positioned to interact with either lipid cofactors or other proteins (Fig. 4B). To see if introduction of two acidic amino acids in this sequence could interfere with the nuclear localization of kinase-defective APKC, Arg-150 and Arg-151 were substituted with glutamate residues giving GFP-λK282W-R150E/R151E. Interestingly, these mutations abolished the nuclear accumulation of kinase-defective GFP-\u03b1K282W. GFP-\u03b1K282W-R150E/ R151E was either diffusely distributed throughout the cells or totally excluded from the nucleus (Fig. 4D). Thus, Arg-150 and Arg-151 seem to be critically involved in nuclear localization of λPKC. To see if the N-terminal half of the λPKC zinc finger, including the critical arginine residues, was sufficient for mediating nuclear translocation, GFP-\(\lambda(141-162)\) encoding a GFP fusion protein containing the first 22 amino acids of the zinc finger was made, GFP-λ(141-162) accumulated in the nuclei of transiently transfected HeLa cells (Fig. 4E). In contrast to the GFP fusion protein containing the complete zinc finger, GFP-A(141-162) did not accumulate in the nucleoli. Next, we mutated Arg-150 and Arg-151 in the context of the GFP-λ(141-162) protein. GFP-λ(141-162)R150E/R151E displayed the same diffuse subcellular distribution as GFP itself (Fig. 4E). Thus, our results strongly suggest that APKC contains a functional NLS within the first 22 amino acids of the zinc finger domain and that Arg-150 and Arg-151 are critical residues within this NLS.

Leptomycin B Treatment Induces Nuclear Accumulation of APKC-To determine whether the predominantly cytoplasmic localization of wild-type APKC is caused by the presence of a leucine-rich NES, GFP-λ-transfected HeLa cells were treated with leptomycin B (LMB). Interestingly, treatment with LMB for 2 h induced nuclear accumulation of the fusion protein (Fig. 5A). To determine whether LMB could induce nuclear accumulation of endogenous APKC. HeLa cells were either left untreated or treated with LMB for 2 h. The cells were fixed and the subcellular localization of endogenous APKC was determined by immunocytochemistry using a specific anti-λPKC antibody. In untreated cells APKC was diffusely localized mainly in the cytoplasm with only a fraction of the protein in the nucleus (Fig. 5B, left panel). Importantly, LMB treatment induced redistribution of endogenous APKC from the cytoplasm to the nucleus (Fig. 5B, right panel). The nuclear accumulation of endogenous APKC in response to LMB was rapid, being significant after 15 min and almost completed after 30 min (Fig. 5C). These results demonstrate that λPKC is exported from the nucleus by a mechanism either involving a functional cis-acting, LMB-sensitive NES or via an NES-containing interaction partner.

Characterization of an NES within APKC—Since GFP. M194—256), despite of its small size, was completely excluded from the nucleus (see Fig. 3C), we speculated that this part of APKC, corresponding to the linker region between the zinc finger domain and the ATP-binding site, could be involved in



Pt. 3. Expression and subcellular localization of GFP fusion proteins containing different parts of the APKC protein. A, schematic representation of different GFP-4 constructs. The numbers in paramheses refer to amino add positions defining the part to the APKC protein included in the fusions. B, immunoblotting of GFP-4 deletion mutants. HEK233 cells were transfected with either pEGFP-CI or 10 µg of expression vectors for either GFP-A, GFPA265-6990, GFPA1-2590, GFPA1-1390, GFPA1-1994, or GFPA191-2500. The cells were burvested 24 h post-transfection, and total cellular proteins were separated in 10% SDS-polyacytlamide gels. The proteins were electrotransferred to a membrane that was subsequently probled with an anti-GFP antibody. C, subcellular localization of the indicated GPPA deletion numbers.

active export from the nucleus. Interestingly, we identified a region camino acids 428–255 that displayed significant similarity to previously identified NES sequences (Fig. 64). To determine whether this region mediates nuclear export of APKC, we generated a mutant of APKC in which two presumably critical hydrophobic amino acids, Phe-258 and Lev-256, are replaced by alanine residues. Similar mutations within NES sequences in other proteins abolish the function of the NES (41–43, 45, 46). In contrast to the wild-type kinase, GFP-APZ65APLZ65A accumulated in the nucleus (Fig. 6B). This strongly suggests that cytoplasmic localization of APKC is conferred by an NES in the linker region between the regulatory and the catalytic domains.

Intramolecular Interactions between the N-terminal Pseudosubstrate Sequence and the Catalytic Domain Inhibit Nuclear Localization of λPKC—To begin unraveling whether intramolecular interactions between the N-terminal part and the catalytic domain might mask the NLS in λPKC, a GFP-λ fusion protein in which the first 140 amino acids were deleted was transiently expressed in HeLa cells. Contrary to the fulllength, wild-type kinase, GFP-\(\lambda(141-595)\) localized exclusively to the nucleus (Fig. 7). Since this fusion protein lacks the autoinhibitory pseudosubstrate sequence, the kinase activity of GFP-λ(141-595) was increased compared with the wild-type enzymes (data not shown). To determine whether disruption of the intramolecular interaction between the pseudosubstrate sequence and the catalytic domain led to nuclear localization, a point mutant of GFP-\(\lambda\) in which Ala-129 within the pseudosubstrate sequence was replaced by glutamate, GFP-\(\lambda\)A129E, was generated and transiently expressed in HeLa cells. Such a mutant has previously been demonstrated to be constitutively activated presumably due to the lack of interaction of the pseudosubstrate sequence with the substrate interaction site in the catalytic domain (56). Consistent with the notion of a conformational change exposing the NLS, GFP-AA129E displayed nuclear accumulation (Fig. 7). Taken together, these results and those presented earlier indicate that it is not the activity status of the kinase as such that determines the subcellular localization. Instead, intramolecular interactions between the catalytic domain and the pseudosubstrate sequence inhibit the nuclear localization of  $\lambda$ PKC by inducing a conformation where the NLS is masked.

Nuclear Import of ZPKC Is Much Less Efficient Than That of λPKC in LMB-treated HeLa Cells—The aPKC subtypes, λPKC and ¿PKC, have the same structural organization and display considerable sequence homology especially within their catalytic domains. To establish if ζPKC was similarly distributed within the cell as APKC, we made a vector expressing GFP fused to full-length ζPKC, pGFP-ζ. GFP-ζ was exclusively localized to the cytoplasm in untreated cells. Surprisingly, GFP-ζ did not accumulate in the nucleus upon LMB treatment for 2 h but was distributed diffusely all over the cell (Fig. 8A). However, after long term treatment with LMB (16 h), GFP-\(\zeta\) accumulated in the nuclei of the transfected cells (data not shown). Since we did not have antibodies available that will only recognize ζPKC specifically, without detecting λPKC, we were not able to analyze the subcellular distribution of endogenous ZPKC by immunocytochemistry. To test whether kinase-defective ZPKC localized differently from wild-type ZPKC, GFP-ZK281W mutated in the ATP-binding site was expressed in HeLa cells. Contrary to kinase-defective λPKC, GFP-ζK281W was predominantly localized in the cytoplasm in a manner similar to wild-type GFP-ζ (Fig. 8C). Kinase assays performed following immunoprecipitation of GFP-ζ or GFP-ζK281W from extracts of transiently transfected HeLa cells showed that GFP-7 was active, whereas GFP-7K281W had no intrinsic kinase activity (Fig. 8C). Similar to GFP-λ, GFP-ζ was as active as an HA epitope-tagged ¿PKC (data not shown). Next, we mutated the putative NES sequence in GFP-\(\ell\) generating GFPζF252A/L254A. Compared with wild-type GFP-ζ, this construct distributed more diffusely all over the cells in transiently transfected HeLa cells but in contrast to GFP-λF253A/L255A. GFP-TF252A/L254A did not accumulate in the nucleus (data not shown). Taken together these results indicate that the nuclear import of IPKC is much less efficient than that of APKC. To sort out if this is due to intrinsic differences in the relative strength/exposure of the NLS and NES in the two kinases, several GFP-ζ deletion mutants were made, and their subcellular distribution was compared with the distribution of corresponding GFP-λ mutants. Very interestingly, GFP-ζ(130-

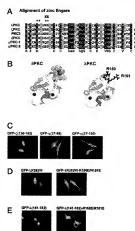


Fig. 4. The zinc finger region of atypical PKCs contain a nuclear localization signal. A, alignments of amino acid sequences of the zinc finger domains of murine APKC (SwissProt accession number Q62074), rat ∠PKC (P09217), PKC3 from C. elegans (GenBank™ accession number AF025666), murine δPKC (P28867), and murine αPKC (P20444). The sequences of both zinc finger domains of αPKC are shown with αPKC-1 as the most N-terminal zinc finger. Asterisks above the alignment denote the basic residues in the putative core NLS. The location of the two Arg residues mutated to Glu is indicated (EE). Conserved positions are indicated below the alignment (b, basic; h, hydrophobic; and a, aromatic). B, a three-dimensional structure model of the zinc finger domain of murine  $\lambda$ PKC is shown to the right with the Arg-150 and Arg-151 residues indicated. The side chains of other Arg and Lys residues are also shown (blue). The model was obtained from the Swiss Model Repository. The x-ray structure model of the second zinc finger of δPKC with the phorbol ester 12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate (in space-filling mode) bound and the two zinc atoms is shown to the left (77). C, subcellular localization of GFP fusions containing zinc finger regions of ZPKC and aPKC. Constructs encoding GFP-ζ(130-182) containing the zinc finger region of murine ζPKC GFP-α(37-88) containing the first zinc finger of αPKC, and GFP-α(37-155) containing both zinc fingers of αPKC were expressed in HeLa cells D, mutation of Arg-150 and Arg-151 within the zinc finger of λPKC prevents nuclear accumulation of kinase-defective λPKC. The subcellular localization of GFP-λK282W and GFP-λK282W-R150E/R151E in which Arg-150 and Arg-151 are replaced by glutamate residues was analyzed in HeLa cells. E, GFP-A(141-162) containing the first 22 amino acids of the APKC zinc finger accumulates in the nucleus, whereas the NLS mutant GFP-λ (141-162)-R150E/R151E is diffusely localized throughout the cell.

592) that lacks the first 129 amino acids of CPKC, including the pseudosubstrate sequence, displayed the complete opposite localization compared with the corresponding GPP-A(441-595) being entirely excluded from the nucleus (Fig. 8D). However, LMB treatment induced rapid nuclear accumulation of this construct. Fig. 9 gives an overview of the subcellular localization of various GPP-A and τ, mutants before and after LMB treatment. Our observations indicate that in CPKC the NES is a stronger signal than the NLS, and nuclear localization is only

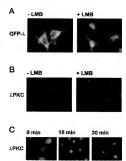


Fig. 5. LMB induces nuclear accumulation of GFP-λ and engenous AFEC. 4, Hela cells were transfected with expression vector for GFP-λ as described in the legend to Fig. 34. Twenty four hafter transfection, cells were either left untreated or treated with 2 gl/ml LMB for 2 b, and the subcellular localization of GFP-λ was determined. B, Hela cells were cultured in Eagle's minimum essential medium supplemented with 10% fetal cell serum and either left untreated or treated with LMB t/2 agrid for 2. The cells were fixed, permeabilized, retarded with LMB t/2 agrid for 2. The cells were fixed, permeabilized, against QFKC. C, an experiment performed similarly as in B except that LMB treatment was for 0, 15 and 30 min, respectively.

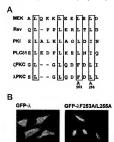


Fig. 6. Characterization of an NES within the linker region of APKC. Al alignments of NES sequences from miscogen-activated protein kinase/actracellular signal-regulated kinase kinase (43), PKI (42), Rev (410,18), PLC3 (46), and the atypical PKCs. Important hydrophobic residues are boxed. B<sub>i</sub> mutation of critical hydrophobic residues are boxed. B<sub>i</sub> mutation of critical hydrophobic residues within the NES (Phe-25S and Leue25) blacks nuclear export of APKC. HeLa for CPP-1273 and Leue25 has absorbed in the lead to the control of the control

observed when the NES motif is removed or functionally inhibited. In contrast, in AFKC the NLS is more potent than the NES when both signals are exposed, and the nuclear import of AFKC is much more efficient than that of LFKC.

#### DISCUSSION

Nuclear localization of classical and novel PKCs as well as aPKCs has been observed previously (8, 35, 58-64). However,

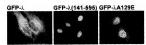


Fig. 7. Intramolecular interactions between the N-terminal pseudosubstrate sequence and the catalytic domain inhibit nuclear localization of APRC. Hela cells were transfected with the indicated GFP-A fusion constructs, and the subcellular localization was determined 24 h following transfection.

to our knowledge, this is the first report where functional NLS and NES sequences are identified within any PKC. We find that APKC shuttles very rapidly and continuously between the nucleus and the cytoplasm. This rapid nucleocytoplasmic shuttling occurs both in noncycling serum-starved cells and in cycling cells proliferating in serum.

Our results suggest that the core of the NLS of APKC consists of the hexapeptide KRFNRR located in the N-terminal part of the zinc finger domain (amino acids 146-151). This basic cluster is conserved in aPKCs from different species as well as in C. elegans PKC3 (KRLNRR) but not in classical and novel PKCs (Fig. 4A). An exception is provided by murine ¿PKC which contains a Gly residue instead of an Arg (KRFNGR). whereas the rat sequence contains the Arg. GFP fusion proteins containing the zinc finger region of either λPKC or ζPKC (both rat and murine) localize exclusively to the nucleus. In contrast, GFP fusion constructs expressing either one or both zinc fingers of classical aPKC are excluded from the nucleus and rather distributed into punctate structures in the cytoplasm. A recent report (65) demonstrated that GFP fusion constructs that expressed only one or both of the zinc fingers of γPKC localized to the cytoplasm of rat basophilic leukemia cells. Upon treatment with various stimuli including phorbol esters, the zinc finger region of yPKC translocated to the plasma membrane. Thus, although evident for the aPKCs, nuclear localization is not a conserved feature of PKC zinc fingers as such.

Based on sequence analyses it has been suggested that both the classical and the aPKCs may contain a bipartite NLS (35). For APKC this NLS would encompass two basic amino acids in the pseudosubstrate sequence (Arg-133 and Lys-134) and Arg-150 and Arg-151 in the motifidentified by us (KRFNRR) in the zinc finger domain. Two such basic clusters within a bipartite NLS are interdependent on each other to mediate nuclear localization (36). The GFP construct containing the zinc finger region lacks the upstream basic cluster in this suggested bipartite NLS. Since this construct is exclusively localized to the cell nucleus, we do not think that a bipartite NLS is involved in nuclear translocation of APKC. The KRFNRR motif, although shorter, is most similar to a type of monopartite NLSs enriched in arginine residues identified in the Tat and Rev proteins of human immunodeficiency virus-1 and the Rex protein of human T-cell leukemia virus type 1. These proteins have been demonstrated to be imported into the nucleus by importin  $\beta$  in an importin α-independent manner (66, 67).

We have found that in contrast to wild-type APKC that mainly localized to the cytoplasm, two different point mutations in the catalytic domain led to nuclear accumulation of full-length APKC. Nuclear accumulation also occurred with deletion mutants lacking either the catalytic domain or the 140 N-terminal amino acids including the pseudosubstrate saquence. Importantly, the A129E point mutation in the pseudosubstrate sequence, which disrupts the interaction between this autoinhibitory sequence and the substrate interaction site in the catalytic domain, also led to nuclear accumula-

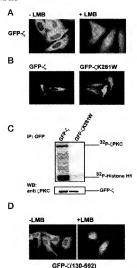


Fig. 8. GFP-ζ does not accumulate in the nucleus following a 2-h treatment with LMB. A. HeLa cells were seeded in 6-well dishes. and subconfluent cells were transfected with 1 µg of a GFP construct containing wild-type rat ¿PKC. Twenty four h later the subcellular distribution of GFP-z was analyzed by fluorescence microscopy in cells which were either left untreated or treated with LMB (2 ng/ml) for 2 h. B, a kinase-defective mutant of ζPKC does not accumulate in the nucleus upon expression in HeLa cells. GFP-z and GFP-zK281W, which contain an inactivating mutation in the ATP-binding site, were expressed in HeLa cells. The subcellular localization was determined 24 h post-transfection. C, kinase activity of GFP-ζ and GFP-ζK281W. HeLa cells were seeded in 100-mm dishes the day before transfection, and subconfluent cultures were transfected with 10 uz of either an expression vector for GFP-ζ or an expression vector for GFP-ζK281W. Cells were harvested 24 h after transfection, and the kinase activities of GFP-ζ and GFP-ζK281W were assayed. Autophosphorylation of immunonrecipitated (IP) GFP- $\xi$  is indicated. A Western blot (WB) of the immunoprecipitated proteins used in the kinase assays is also shown. D, deletion of the N-terminal regulatory domain containing the pseudosubstrate sequence of ZPKC does not cause nuclear accumulation in the absence of LMB (2 ng/ml for 2 h).

tion of full-length APKC fused to GFP. The deletion mutant is exclusively nuclear, whereas the point mutant is found also in the exteplasm. This difference in the extent of relocalization relative to the wild-type enzyme is consistent with previous findings showing that regions of the regulatory domain of PKCs outside the pseudosubstrate sequence contribute to autoinhibition (68). We therefore suggest that intranolecular interactions between the catalytic domain and the N-terminal part of the protein in such a way that the accessibility of the NLS, the NES, or both signaling sequences is affected. Such a model of regulation has been

GFP-λ/-ζ fusion	λРКС		ζΡΚΟ	
protein	-LMB +	LMB	- LMB	+ LMB
	С	N	С	C(+N
NLS NES	С	С	С	С
	N		C+N	N
	N		N	
	C+N	C+N	nd	nd
American	N		С	N
	N		C+N	N
\mathrew{m}	N		N	
<u>√</u> ₽ <u></u>	С	N	nd	nd

pseudosubstrate sequence

mp zinc finger domain

rzzzz catalytic domain

Fig. 9. Summary of subcellular localizations of GFP fusion proteins containing full-length or different parts of λ- or ζPKC before and after LMB treatment. HeLa cells in 6-well dishes were transfected with 1 µg of expression vector for each indicated GFP fusion protein and left untreated or treated with LMB (2 ng/ml) for 2 h at 24 h post-transfection before being analyzed by fluorescence microscopy. The locations of the NLS and NES motifs are shown (open diamond and triangle, respectively). C, cytoplasm; N, nucleus; C+N, both cytoplasm and nucleus; nd, not determined.

suggested for the serine/threonine kinase MAPKAP kinase-2 (44). According to this model, an NLS within MAPKAP kinase-2 is exposed both in the inactive and active enzyme. In the inactive enzyme an NES motif is masked due to intramolecular interaction between an autoinhibitory region and the catalytic domain. Consequently, inactive MAPKAP kinase-2 is localized to the nucleus. However, upon phosphorylation and activation by p38, the intramolecular interaction is relieved leading to unmasking of the NES. When both the NLS and NES are exposed, the protein is exported from the nucleus more efficiently than it is imported (44). For APKC we suggest that it is primarily the exposure of the NLS that is regulated through intramolecular interactions between the catalytic domain and the N-terminal region. An interaction between the pseudosubstrate sequence in the N-terminal parts of the PKC enzymes and the substrate interaction site in the catalytic domain is well documented (69). To understand fully the intramolecular interactions regulating activity and subcellular localization, it will be necessary to determine the three-dimensional structure of both wild-type and mutant APKC.

As mentioned in the Introduction, nuclear localization of both λPKC and ζPKC has been reported (8, 33, 35). Recently, it was shown that translocation of ZPKC to the nucleus following NGF stimulation of PC12 cells probably depends on nuclear PI 3-kinase activity (34). Interestingly, evidence for the existence of nuclear PI 3-kinase activity has been provided (70-72). It has earlier been proposed that conventional PKC isoforms may continuously shuttle in and out of the nucleus and become "trapped" in the nucleus by an increase in the nuclear level of diacylglycerol (73). In line with this hypothesis, Neri et al. (34) suggest that ZPKC is similarly trapped following an increase in nuclear phosphatidylinositol 3.4.5-trisphosphate. Due to their large size a functional NLS is required for nuclear import of aPKCs. We find that the zinc finger domain contains a functional, although atypical, basic NLS. This signal functions independently of a structurally intact zinc finger in the context of a GFP fusion. However, we cannot rule out the possibility that in the context of the full-length protein an intact zinc finger is required for nuclear accumulation. This is particularly the case since the two Arg residues we mutated to Glu resulting in loss of nuclear import may also be involved in the binding of phosphatidylinositol 3.4.5-trisphosphate. Thus, a conformational change may expose the NLS which then enables nuclear import. Subsequently, the protein may become trapped in the nucleus due to binding of nuclear phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5trisphosphate by the zinc finger.

We find that ¿PKC is much more inefficiently imported into the nucleus than APKC upon inhibition of nuclear export. This is in apparent conflict with the work showing rapid nuclear translocation of ¿PKC following NGF treatment of PC12 cells. However, it is possible that nuclear translocation of CPKC is more tightly regulated than that of APKC perhaps via posttranslational modifications induced by specific stimuli. Another possibility is that both Neri et al. (34) and Wooten et al. (35) are actually looking more at λPKC than ζPKC since the antibodies they used actually recognize both isoforms of aPKCs. We find that PC12 cells express λPKC using a specific monoclonal antibody recognizing only APKC. However, a similar antibody recognizing only ¿PKC is not available.

In a recent study Sanchez et al. (57) reported that APKC colocalized with a putative anchoring protein called p62 into punctate, vesicle-like structures in the cytoplasm corresponding to late endosomes. The concept of p62 serving as an anchoring protein, or perhaps more precisely a scaffolding protein, for aPKCs is very interesting since p62 also seems to be involved in recruiting other proteins into complexes harboring aPKCs (74-76). We have found that, when overexpressed, p62 is able to redistribute kinase-defective \( \lambda PKC \) from the nucleus to the cytoplasm and that this ability is dependent on a direct interaction between these two proteins.2 Thus, it is clear that in addition to regulation of subcellular localization by conformational changes affecting NLS and NES function, the localization of aPKCs is also being regulated by proteins with scaffolding functions such as p62.

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